
Electronic publishing and its many offshoots are revolutionizing the ways we gather, organize and retrieve information. The implications of such fundamental changes in our working environment are far reaching, and many questions beg to be answered. Thus, contributions to the body of research in this new field can help us all understand the new directions our work is taking.

These proceedings of the 24th Conference of the Canadian Association for Information Science add to our corpus of knowledge, but they illustrate also how we have to begin to look at our work with new eyes and apply our skills in new ways. Specifically, the contributors have begun to answer such disparate questions as: “What are the most useful elements to patrons in an electronically displayed bibliographic record?”; “What is a philosophic framework that can help us to integrate electronic publishing with our educational worldview?”; “What makes a useful web site?”; “How has electronic publishing changed the habits of researchers’” and “What happens to bibliographic instruction in an electronic publishing environment?” These questions and others will frame our discussions and inform our work as electronic publishing becomes a more commonplace tool of our trade.

Can publishing on the Internet be profitable? “Commercial Internet publishing—the practicalities” by John C. and Mary M. Nash presents a fascinating discussion of an experience in publishing on the Internet using shareware. Choosing appropriate formatting and packaging, making decisions about marketing, devising efficient ways to take and fulfill orders, presented unique challenges in the fluid environment of the Internet. Because the technology for direct payment was not in place, many more copies were downloaded than were paid for, so the authors also discussed ways to prevent such losses and make such a venture profitable.

What about copyright? Hope A. Olson and Lillian MacPherson of the University of Alberta discussed whether the concept of intellectual property rights must evolve in response to electronic publishing. In “CyberRight: intellectual property rights in the electronic information market” they raise the possibility of shifts in the power structures that underly the concept of copyright. By looking at information as a commodity rather than as the creation of an individual, and discussing who actually holds a copyright and who loses by its infringement, the authors raise questions that become even more pertinent in an electronic publishing environment.

How can we facilitate access to collections of electronic journals? “The Electronic Resources Project of the Faculty of Information Studies” by Marie Misiek and Gerry Oxford explains how the Electronic Sources Project at the University of Toronto created full searchability for an electronic journal collection by marking up journal issues using SGM, loading issues into an OpenText database, and providing a Web form for searching. The description of the project is clearly written and wonderfully detailed and provides useful information for the consideration of publishers and librarians of electronic journals.

All of the topics covered are important to those whose work is being transformed by electronic publishing. These proceedings are thought provoking as well as informative, a useful addition to any professional literature bookshelf.

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This is a book written by liberals about the British situation. It examines education policy and its consequences for the British economy and national interests in the years since 1979 from the liberal point of view. Is “flexible workforce” just a euphemism for underpaid, under-trained workers in unstable jobs? Is continuous quality improvement a way of forcing workers to concentrate on the small details of their daily work so that they are disenfranchised from the larger concerns of industry and the nation? The authors would not answer these questions in the affirmative, but they argue that in many instances these are the unintended consequences of current practice.

The globalization of the economy has meant that each individual country has less control of its own economic welfare. Corporations, or entire industries which originated in one country may be bought by a company based in another, or may grow to become major international players. An individual national government has little influence on such corporations, indeed a major international corporation can often have significant influence on national policy. Often this leads national politicians to look to social and cultural institutions to strengthen national identity. At the same time they may feel the need to try to make their own country more attractive to international business as a way to protect their economies. In Britain both of these concerns were acted upon, often in ways that were contradictory.

Right-wing British governments, beginning with Mrs. Thatcher’s election in 1979, attempted to make Britain’s business climate more attractive by working to weaken labor unions, avoid setting or raising minimum wages, and lowering worker expectations of job security. Average hours worked per week also rose substantially. When industries relocated to other countries and the economy began to falter, the schools were blamed for inadequately preparing the work force. This was not just a matter of teaching appropriate skills, but also an attitudinal problem. In chapter two, Esland quotes a 1977 Department of Education and Science Green Paper as recommending that if the nation was to maintain its standard of living, children must be taught to “properly esteem the essential role of industry and commerce in this process.” In order to reform the education system and turn the economic tide, the government adopted a managerial model. Managerialism refers to the administrative system that treats the schools as businesses in which the students are customers and their learning the product, which must be produced as efficiently as possible. The British have adopted a great degree of centralization, prescribing both a very detailed curriculum based on traditional subjects and the standardized tests that will measure its mastery. This high degree of centralization was to make the schools operate more efficiently while instilling proper values and offering equal opportunity for learning to all.

The authors argue that industrial values are not those of education, nor are they values which will build a strong nation. True nationalism based on economic well being, social cohesion and personal growth cannot be gained via the imposition of a government sponsored and tightly controlled curriculum. Education and nationalism must value critical thinking, judgment, responsibility, exploration and imagination. Readers in the United States should find this message of interest, as our schools are also being encouraged to look to the needs of industry and form partnerships with business. This is not easy reading, due to economics jargon and Britishisms such as “quango,” an acronym for quasi autonomous non governmental organization — but the points are well made even without a close reading. Other more familiar authors like Denis Lawton and Brian Simon discuss similar issues, but this work brings greater depth and a partisan liberal viewpoint. Readers left wanting an American oriented discussion of these topics could look to Joel Spring’s Conflict of Interests: The Politics of American Education.

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The author reminds us that, although education was a subject of interest for many good minds throughout the centuries, it did not rank as a university discipline until late in the 19th Century. He traces the history of educational thought. He starts with the Greeks, to whom he attributes the beginnings of an educational philosophy based on the goals of rational government, ethical standards, and personal nobility. Plato’s belief, that a rational system of education, lasting many years, could lead toward the ultimate goal of truth was questioned by Isocrates and the Sophists. After the conquests of Alexander the Great (356-323 BC), the Hellenists faced the issue of acculturating those in the Greek-dominated regions. The tendency was to accept and glorify language, literature, and rhetoric, while rejecting science and philosophy, as inferior to the liberal arts. The Romans were influenced by the Hellenists and the classical Greeks, but held the conviction that education was a lifelong process whose goal was human formation, while schooling was designed to prepare for the practical obligations of life. Cicero’s *De Oratore* presents his plan for Roman education, emphasizing literature, rhetoric, history, law and philosophy. His work was amplified by Quintillian, a supporter of public schools, whose *Education of an Orator* had a tremendous influence on education in Europe for centuries.

The problems facing Christians wanting to educate their children in the early centuries A.D. may have been more severe than those of contemporary fundamentalists, but they were very similar. Should they send them to pagan public schools, where they would receive the education necessary to practical success in the community, or limit their studies to religion? It was Jerome (creator of the Vulgate, the great Latin version of the Bible) who encouraged teachers to use the classics as a model for style, correct speech, and writing, while ignoring the content. Augustine championed the “Christianization” of the ancient knowledge, recommending that reason be based on faith, and advocating careful selection of materials, including expurgating “foul” books and parts of them. He fostered the creation of special textbooks that would eliminate the need for classical works as models of style. As the Roman Empire declined and the need for education was left unfilled, Cassiodorus came forward with a plan to improve traditional educational practice so as to replace the classical schools, with the goal being the creation of a basis for solving both religious and secular problems.

Medieval educators saw the goal of education as “the civilization of intellect, the schooling of persons destined for ecclesiastical life, and preparation for eternity.” Alcuin, Charlemagne’s equivalent of an Education Department head, espoused pedagogic technique - especially the teaching of Latin - and the indispensability of the arts, previously neglected. Later Christian scholars promoted the view that reading is primary but that the reader must be assisted to know what to read, in what order, and how. The teacher was not only teaching the student to read, but giving the “correct” interpretation of the material, that is “the meaning intended by God.” Within the Christian fold, the humanist movement became important, allowing that human goals can be noble and rescuing even more of the classical works, while still applying principles of “selection.” Erasmus combined a commitment to the importance of the classics with an unshakable Christian faith. The development of type coincided with this movement, giving it a kind of support previously unknown.

The 17th Century Moravian educator Comenius was the first to advocate a public school system at 3 levels: elementary, secondary, and university. John Locke based his educational philosophy on the goal of moral formation, utility (i.e., the education of “gentlemen,” not scholars), and on empirical methods; he viewed the child as a “tabula rasa” or blank slate, upon which educators may write. Rousseau brought the century to a close with the notion of natural education, the antithesis of educational practices of the day.

Early in the 19th Century, Herbart ushered in the notion of a scientific pedagogy, and of special training for teachers. The American colonists - like the ancient Romans - differentiated between education (a lifelong process) and schooling. They favored the philosophy of Bacon, who championed natural science, natural curiosity and investigation as educational principles. Although the Puritans faced the same dilemma as the early Christians, they accepted the need for practical learning, while remaining quite anti-intellectual. The many colleges founded by the colonists taught mainly logic, grammar, and rhetoric. Ben Franklin was an educational reformer, advocating the primacy of teaching English, and the modification of educational practice to suit the colonists’ needs. Jefferson was more radical in his educational thought; he proposed the first legislation to make schooling (three years of it) available at no charge to all free children and a broad system of scholarships for higher education; however, he was never able to get the Virginia legislature to pass it.

19th Century American education was based on the principle of effective citizenship. Normal schools were founded beginning in the 1840’s and many teachers’ colleges came into being in the last quarter of the 19th century. In 1906, John Dewey declared that education was finally accepted as a university subject.
Two major philosophical tracks of education in the 20th Century were progressivism, a set of methods designed to capture student interest, and essentialism, a belief in a set of core disciplines. The conflict between these two points of view is still widespread. Meanwhile, several philosophical systems, among them, realism, linguistic analysis, and logical positivism had an impact on educational thought, promoting as a goal the knowledge of the world and our relationship to it. Again, humanists, mostly Christians, argued that education should be a means for cultivating the purely human abilities of thought and expression. Pragmatism (espoused by Dewey) held that the only thing constant is change and that all knowledge is therefore relative, although many tested theories may hold true for long periods of time. This placed more emphasis on the process of education than on its content; stressing how to learn, solve problems, and interact socially. Educators flirted with existentialism, Marxism, and behaviorism. At the end of the 20th Century, there is no one accepted educational philosophy in the U.S., nor is one predominant philosophical system generally accepted at all.

For centuries, education and educational philosophy sought to be accepted as university disciplines. By the end of World War II the growth in higher education and in graduate programs caused a flourishing of ideas, but since then the standing of education as a university discipline has never been very high. If the purpose of educational philosophy is to state the nature, purpose and means for education and then translate that into policies for implementation, it needs to address a number of contemporary issues, such as democratic education, educational equality, the locus of educational support and control, the education and status of teachers, standards of achievement, the role of religion in education, and censorship.

The author ends on a rather negative note about the future of educational philosophy. Warning against unintelligibility, artificiality, and jargon, he has done a better job of depicting the history of the subject than in convincing the reader of its relevance to present-day education. Extremely readable, this work, is very valuable for the factual history and development of ideas; good for philosophy and education collections.

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African Americans and Civil Rights: From 1619 to the Present is an introductory survey for high school and college students as well as the general public. This informative text gives a unique and often overlooked perspective of the development of the United States as a nation through the legal, economic, and political role of African-Americans. Michael Levine also discusses the issue of racism and its influence on attitudes towards and status of blacks in the U.S.A.

At times this book is overwhelming with facts and dates, which may be intimidating to the high school student. It is worth the effort because Levine presents more than just a revisionist look at U.S. history. He provides many early examples of progressive behavior by individuals, who recognized the unequal treatment of blacks. The 1960s are often recognized as the Civil Rights Era; however, Levine identifies early roots of activism in the 18th century. In 1780, African-Americans organized the African Union Society to fight racial prejudice. Individual states, too, began to acknowledge the unfair treatment of blacks. Pennsylvania revoked laws prohibiting interracial marriages.

African-Americans continued their fight for personal and constitutional reforms well into the 20th century. Prejudice was not the only opposition that blacks faced. Changing social and economic conditions brought on by the World Wars created more obstacles. Blacks had to compete against European immigrants, white women entering the work force, and unions for employment.

This book would be a useful addition to any general history collection, as it provides an important look at the interaction and relationships of blacks and whites in the United States. It would be especially useful as a reference tool, because it contains short biographies of significant figures in African-American history (including non-blacks), a chronology of important dates from 1619-1996, a glossary of terms, and several pages of suggested reading, as well as a bibliography and index.

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Mimi Wolverton, the author of this slim book, describes the efforts of seven colleges, universities, and academic programs to systematically improve the effectiveness of classroom instruction. As the subtitle suggests, she portrays these initiatives through the lens of Continuous Quality (or Total Quality) principles and language. Several of these programs have been previously documented. However, as a comparative study of the teaching and learning process, this work represents a welcome contribution to the quality literature of higher education.

*New Alliance* is divided into four chapters. These consist of an introduction to Total Quality Management (TQM); a discussion of the seven case studies; a summary of their common (and uncommon) characteristics; and finally, a description of unresolved issues concerning the application of TQM to higher education instruction. Wolverton also provides an appendix with the names of contact persons at each institution, and a bibliography of 131 citations.

On one hand, the work represents a strong introduction to TQM in the classroom. Many members of the faculty and administration will appreciate these case studies for their useful, but brief summaries. The former group will find glimpses of actual quality practices, such as fast-feedback questionnaires, student background surveys, benchmarking, fishbone diagrams, teaching labs, personal quality checklists and innovative systems of evaluation. The latter group will discover methods used elsewhere to encourage and initiate quality improvement. These range from teaming and institutional reorganization to staff development, financial rewards, and credit toward tenure and promotion.

Apart from these individual ideas, readers of *New Alliance* will find a number of thought-provoking syntheses of research. Wolverton succeeds most when creating succinct, descriptive lists of characteristics surrounding an issue. For instance, early in the book, she identifies nine barriers to Continuous Quality Improvement in higher education. Elsewhere, she defines the five common features of the quality programs in her study (customer focus, administrative commitment, instructional effectiveness, faculty development, and the recognition that continuous quality improvement takes time and money).

On the other hand, this reviewer would take issue with two aspects of the work. First—and less important—the brevity of text occasionally becomes a liability for readers not initiated into Total Quality language, or for others seeking more detailed explanations.

Secondly, Wolverton neglects the role of academic libraries in her discussion of quality and classroom effectiveness. Presumably, none of the seven programs surveyed support a strong library component. Perhaps the academic library remains the best kept instructional secret on campus. When viewed as an “information lab” where students become engaged through active learning, the library becomes a tremendous tool for quality improvement.

Nevertheless, *New Alliance* represents a valuable contribution to the literature on quality in higher education, and an especially timely work focusing on instruction. As a comparative study with practical applications, it is based on a great deal of personal research and a thorough review of literature. Wolverton’s book will be important for individuals working in this area, and especially among those beginning to benchmark the efforts of other institutions.

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We are all shaped by the geography, history, economics and social structures of our time. For Don Barnes, who rose from a blue-collar environment in class-conscious England to a top educator in Canada, this is particularly true.

Sharen McDonald spends 75 of her 186-page biography (roughly 40%) delving into the past machinery that forged Don Barnes’ future as an educator. She draws the reader, quite effectively, into the world of his youth -1940s and 1950s England - from the trauma of war-time bombardments, the rationing of food and commodities, and the evacuations to the post-war reconstruction and the rigid class system. Add to this background other early influences: his hard-working and meticulous father; his headmaster, who read St. Paul’s “First Epistle to the Corinthians” and Rudyard Kipling’s “If” during daily assemblies; the prevailing mood of war-torn Britain to “never surrender”; and his experiences and attempts at various modes of employment. All these factors sowed the seeds for his later beliefs and practices.
Although the book tends to jump erratically from topic to topic at times, the author weaves her tale in a reasonably chronological order, beginning with a foreword, through seven chapters (the last being a series of vignettes) and concluding with a bibliography. She devotes considerable space to Barnes' early personal years, yet only the briefest of forays into his private, adult life. She skims over his three marriages and relationships with his own children without giving much insight into Don Barnes the (private) man as opposed to Don Barnes the (public) educator. She also provides a brief background into Montreal’s West Island communities and buildings that were home to Barnes for thirty years.

At times, the descriptions are unnecessarily poetic. While these passages are well-written, they serve no real purpose. The book is replete with quotations and anecdotes, most of them coming from Barnes himself. Other sources include former colleagues, students, and a few family members. The anecdotes range from humourous situations to those of frustration at a school system that sometimes seems more concerned with finances and public image than the needs of the students they serve.

Don Barnes believed in the philosophy of fair, firm and friendly. He was innovative, visible, and accessible to both staff and students. He instituted several extra-curricular clubs, introduced new courses, initiated school procedures and organized events. He encouraged students to think and to question everything they read.

In the final analysis, however, the reader must ask what qualities make a great educator. More important, what did Don Barnes achieve that sets him apart from other great (unsung) educators? This is never really answered.

This biography may be of interest to those who want a bird’s eye glimpse into the inner workings of the Lakeshore School Board, and to those who hope to be inspired by one man’s quest to revitalize education.

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(The work consists chiefly of articles selected from issues of *Prospects*, the UNESCO quarterly review and based on papers presented at two international meetings, the first a 1988 seminar marking the 25th anniversary of the International Institute of Educational Planning, and the second an international congress on the planning and management of educational development, sponsored by UNESCO in Mexico City in 1990.)

The field of educational planning developed, according to the editors, in the 1960's, in the hope that education would lead to increased development and to economic and social equality. These hopes are now shattered, partly because the concept was insufficiently implemented. Instead, rigid, mandated planning has been enforced in many places, leaving untouched the need for a rational framework for the planning of education throughout the world.

The volume is in three parts: Part I: "A New Agenda for the Educational Planner," contains eight articles on: improving the quality of the teaching and learning experience; the need for new sources of funding; the need to raise the technological level; decentralization and collective participation; aspects of management and administration of education and; the declining role of the state in education.

Part II: "The Practice of Educational Planning in Different Regions" includes five papers from five distinct regions: Africa, Latin America, the Arab States, Asia, and Europe. The articles, written by educators from those regions, describe the history of educational planning in each region. Most have statistics which may be of value.

Part III: "The Future of Educational Planning," consisting of five articles by authors from diverse regions, suggests possible directions in which educational planning might evolve.

The work is set in the style(s) of the journal from which the papers are taken; some in one- and some two-column format, in relatively small type. The international aspects make it valuable for library collections which may not have the *Prospects* issues, or for readings for a class in educational planning or international education.

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